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ABSTRACT

The status of classical studies in the United States of America is contrasted with the British classical tradition from diverse points of view. Several articles focus on: (1) the English and American school systems, (2) a historical survey of the classics in the schools and universities of the United States, (3) classical associations in the United States, and (4) classics in the secondary schools of the United States. Contributing authors include M. P. O. Morford, Donald H. Akenson, L. R. Shero, W. R. Jones, and Gertrude Drake. (RI)

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JACT PAMPHLET | 3

CLASSICS IN THE U S A

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Foreword

In considering the future of classical studies, we cannot afford to be narrowly parochial. The British classical tradition is a great fact of educational history, but no country can claim to be the sole repository of wisdom in such matters. In some respects the experience of the United States of America is very illuminating. Industrial and social changes there have in the past often followed behind ours; but more lately the speed of developments has overtaken us, and many of the problems that they have already had to face are now confronting us in more or less similar form. There as here, students of Classics in the universities and schools are a relatively small minority; but we may find encouragement and help in observing how they have set about the task of making themselves effectively felt and of influencing the work of other faculties. At the same time we must remember that the contributors to this pamphlet are a few individuals chosen from several thousands of classical teachers in a vast and varied country. Their views may well not be typical or representative, and some will find their conclusions over-optimistic.

Mr Morford was an obvious person to be asked to compile and edit a JACT pamphlet on the Classics in the United States, for he has had experience in England and in America, in schools and in universities. We are convinced that what he and his contributors have written will be of interest and of value to all teachers of Classics in both countries; not least, because it will help to reveal the picture, whether true or misleading, which we have of each other's characteristics and institutions. In this hope, with gratitude to the editor and his authors, we have pleasure in offering the results of their labours as a contribution to our joint thinking and mutual understanding.

C. W. BATY

Introduction

The Classics long ago lost their status in the USA as a sacred cow; while this has often put them at the mercy of ignorant administrators, it has also given them a vitality and breadth of appeal which countries where the Classics have yet to be disestablished may well envy. This is the achievement with which this survey is principally concerned; the contributors of the first two articles have set the Classics in a historical perspective, so that the reader can see in the first place how the different social and economic backgrounds of the USA and Britain have affected educational developments; secondly, how classical studies were in the earliest days at the heart of American education and how they still have a significant place in the scheme a century after the revolution (social, economic and educational) caused by the Civil War and the settlement of the West. The influence of European classicists, and the intimate connection of the Classics with the most influential schools and universities in Britain, predispose English classicists to underestimate the extent and the quality of American classical studies. Nor is it easy for those who have not taught or studied in the USA to appreciate the enormous scale and complexity of American education; here is a system where there may be 40,000 undergraduates or more on one university campus, where schools with 2,000 students are not uncommon, where a state or city educational superintendent will frequently be administering a budget running to many millions of dollars. Whether or not such a system is desirable, there is no doubt that in a vast, industrial and wealthy country, such as the USA, it is inevitable; the remarkable thing is how the Classics have maintained a firm hold in the face of apparently irresistible pressures.

This situation has been achieved at a high cost; Greek has

virtually disappeared from the public high schools and the teaching of Ancient History is generally superficial in the schools, limited in the majority of universities. Yet more serious is the low academic standard of teacher training. Student teachers in most states will generally devote only one quarter or less of their training to their major academic subject while courses in Education are required to play a bigger part in the curriculum; not infrequently a student Latin teacher will be supervised, even for her classroom training, by a French or Spanish specialist.

Yet these shortcomings are widely recognized; and no one should underestimate American pragmatism. The warnings of J. B. Conant on teacher-training have not gone unheeded; efforts are being made to increase the 'academic capital' of teachers, for example by the introduction of graduate courses leading to the degree of Master of Arts in Teaching (M A T). On all sides Classicists as well as 'Educators' are concerned to remedy acknowledged shortcomings in the system; some of the new developments and current debates are described in these pages. In Britain, Oxbridge fights its rearguard action and the Public Schools quibble over Common Entrance Latin; the big battles are yet to be fought by the Classicists, of which perhaps the most formidable will be the struggle to maintain a high standard of teaching in the schools when the eventual expansion of the universities draws off many of the most capable potential schoolteachers. British Classicists may find food for thought in the experiences of their American colleagues.

M. P. O. MORFORD

The English and the American School Systems

Despite the ease with which schoolmasters in England and in America coin epigrams contrasting the educational systems of the two countries, the relationship of the two educational systems is not one of mere difference.[1] When we discuss the two nations' educational networks we are not undertaking the simple job of contrasting black and white, but are faced with the more difficult task of distinguishing between close shades of grey. Considering the broad range of structural possibilities, England and America possess strikingly similar educational systems. Each nation maintains a system in which students pass through a series of clearly defined phases, or grades, from primary school to graduate degree. Within each system some effort is made to allocate students to places according to ability and to the students' interest. In the case of each structure, control is divided between local units of government and higher governmental authorities. The educational authorities of both countries have acquired the right to compel children to attend state-provided or state-approved schools. But in neither nation has the church, the community, or the family ceased to function as an informal educational agency.

Besides being roughly similar in structure, the educational systems of England and of the United States appear to rest on identical philosophical foundations. When one strips away the layers of verbiage obscuring each system, it appears that two fundamental assumptions are the cornerstone of behaviour in each nation. The first of these is that equality of educational

[1]'England' in this paper means England and Wales, and not 'Great Britain'. Although the educational systems of England and Wales and of Scotland are presently almost alike, the early history of Scottish education differs greatly from that of England and Wales, a fact which precludes discussing Scotland in an essay of this length.

opportunity is a right. The individual in each country is presumed to be educable until proved otherwise. The second assumption is that schooling is a responsibility of the state, and that the government has a greater right than do the child's parents to determine how a child is to be schooled. In both countries, a child may be trained only in state-provided or state-approved institutions. These assumptions are rarely, if ever, stated explicitly, but they underlie all of the educational practice and most of the educational debate on both sides of the Atlantic.

But why should the English and the American educational systems be so similar in structure, and why should they rest on identical assumptions? The reasons are twofold. First, because the systems rise from the same historical roots. Second, because the influences which have shaped the development of each nation's educational network have been notably similar within the last 150 years. Just as we are not surprised when a child resembles his parent, so we should not be disconcerted to find educational institutions resembling their antecedents. The American colonial school system was a direct transplant from England, and every effort was made by the colonists to follow English precedents. Although Americans have long since abandoned their slavish imitation of the English, the foundation of American educational structure was securely English, and so it has remained.

The past century-and-a-half has seen each nation undergo a social and economic revolution. It is convenient, if overly simple, to think of English and American social and economic patterns of the last two hundred years as having occurred in a series of layers. The basic, and potentially the most revolutionary, layer consisted of the rapid growth of population in each nation. The population of England and Wales was 8,893,000 in 1801. By 1901 it had grown to 32,528,000 and by 1961 to 46,072,000.[1] The figures for the United States for the years 1810, 1900, and

[1]David C. Marsh, *The Changing Social Structure of England and Wales, 1871-1951* (London: 1958), p. 6; *Britain, An Official Handbook* (London: 1963), p. 19.

1955 are 7,224,000, 76,094,000 and 165,270,000 respectively.[3] A second stratum of change was each nation's transformation from an agrarian to an industrial economy. Fortunately, it is once again permissible to speak of the 'Industrial Revolution', even if it is still impossible to define it. If one adds industrialization to population growth, the result is another layer of change: the growth of cities. Throughout the nineteenth century the proportion of the population of England and Wales living in urban areas steadily climbed. In 1801 only 26% of the inhabitants of England and Wales lived in places with more than 5,000 inhabitants.[4] Even in 1851 the average Englishman was still a countryman.[5] Some time between 1851 and 1871 the corner was turned, and more citizens of England and Wales were found in cities than in rural areas. The 1961 census revealed that only 9,213,000 of the 46,072,000 inhabitants of England and Wales lived in rural areas.[6] The same trend swept the United States although at a somewhat later date. In 1890 the urban-rural breakdown of the American population was 22,106,000 urban, 40,841,000 rural. The figures for 1910 were 41,999,000 urban, 49,973,000 rural, and for 1950 were 96,468,000 urban, 54,229,000 rural.[7]

The implications of the industrial-urban revolution were the same in both countries. In attempting to solve the problems of an urban civilization each nation turned to a variety of devices involving increasing state intervention in everyday affairs. These devices ranged from the creation of police forces to the evolution of schemes of social insurance. Education became increasingly a matter of state concern. The previously agrarian culture in each nation had relied upon the family to provide most of the child's

[3] *Historical Statistics of the United States* (Washington, D C: 1960), p. 7.

[4] Sir John Clapham, *A Concise Economic History of Britain, from the Earliest Times to 1750* (Cambridge, England: first edition, 1949, reprinted 1963), p. 188.

[5] G. M. Young and W. D. Handcock, *English Historical Documents, 1833-1874* (London: 1956), p. 190.

[6] *Britain, An Official Handbook*, p. 19.

[7] *Historical Statistics of the United States*, p. 9.

education. In an industrial society this was impossible. Much of the technology of industry was too complicated to be passed along from father to son. Further, the child in the new industrial order no longer worked at his father's side as he had in the days of farming and domestic industry. Hence, it was impossible for the family to continue to carry the whole burden of the child's education, even if its older members had possessed sufficient knowledge of the new technology. The result was that each nation increasingly turned to formal institutions of education to train and to socialize its young. This trend was considerably accelerated by the social disorder that prevailed in the burgeoning cities:

> A striking illustration of the position of the cities is found in the result of the referendum of 1850, which established free schools throughout the state of New York. The vote revealed a sharp division of urban against rural counties, and the former stood for progress and for better education facilities . . . [The reasons are that] here the home lost its industrial character and its surrounding playgrounds, and as a result, much of its educational possibilities . . . People are crowded closely together in cities, evils and needs are more in evidence than in rural districts . . . Pauperism and juvenile crime are more prevalent and disturbing in cities than in the country.[8]

Because the industrial order demanded the transmission of relatively advanced forms of knowledge, because the family lost much of its economic function and hence its educational character in urban life, and because the cities required new agencies of social cohesion, the English and the Americans created systems of mass education.

Basic similarity, however, should not blind us to significant differences between the systems. One of the most important of these is a matter of tone: the values and expectations underlying the entire English educational network are set by the institutions 'on top', the universities and university colleges, while the tone of the American system seems to be set by the institutions on the bottom of the educational ladder, the primary schools and to a lesser degree the high schools. The implications of this contrast in attitudes are considerable. The English system is ruthlessly

[8]Frank T. Carlton, *Education and Industrial Revolution* (New York: 1910), pp. 60-61.

exclusive, allowing only the very best students to enter grammar school, and then the university. In contrast, Americans do not formally segregate children according to ability until after their high school years, and then they allow almost any high school graduate whose father can pay the bills to enter some sort of college. Thus, while less than eight per cent of English eighteen-year-olds go on to full-time higher education, roughly thirty per cent of Americans of the same age enter full-time schooling in post-secondary institutions.[9] One should quickly add that much of the American rejection of educational exclusiveness is more apparent than real. If Americans allow almost anyone to graduate from high school and to enter college they do discriminate sharply as to which college he is allowed to enter. The better American university colleges, especially those of the Ivy League, are intellectually and socially as exclusive as any in the British Isles. We might say that the American system is 'mercifully exclusive', in that it publicly refuses the right to extended schooling to very few people; rather than humiliate second-rate students by throwing them out of the schools, it allows them to putter away in second-rate university colleges seemingly designed especially for their comfort.

Americans are often shocked at the early age at which most English children leave school. Two-thirds of the American states have compulsory attendance laws effective to age sixteen, the others to seventeen or eighteen.[10] The school leaving age in England and Wales remains at fifteen, although it is to be raised to sixteen at the end of this decade.[11] 51.3% of English fifteen-year-olds, 19.0% of sixteen-year-olds, and 9.8% of seventeen-year-olds were in maintained schools in 1964.[12] 98.[illegible]% of American fourteen- and fifteen-year-olds, 84.3% of sixteen- and

[9]*Higher Education,* Appendix v. [Cmnd. 2154-v], p. 9.
[10]*Ibid.,* p. 167.
[11]The Butler Act of 1944 provided for the immediate raising of the leaving age to fifteen, and to sixteen as soon as possible. This latter provision was ignored until very recently.
[12]*Education in 1964. Being the Report of the Department of Education and Science.* [Cmnd. 2612], p. 35.

seventeen-year-olds, and 41.8% of American eighteen- and nineteen-year-olds were enrolled in school in October 1962.[13] The early school leaving age is accompanied by another English custom which disturbs many American educators: the practice of having children specialize academically at a relatively young age. Whereas American students do not make a firm commitment to one particular area of study until they are launched on their university programmes, English pupils begin to concentrate their interest while still in secondary school. The corollary of specialization among English children in secondary school is that the university programmes of English youths consist almost entirely of academic work within a single area of study. American colleges, on the other hand, provide the individual student with a considerably more varied bill of intellectual fare. Hence, while the English university graduate is usually more proficient in his field of specialization than his American counterpart, he is usually less well versed in liberal and humane studies. An especially troubling consequence of the English tendency to specialize is the practice of separating children, ostensibly according to ability, at the relatively early age of eleven, the children then being sent to schools which concentrate on dealing with children of similar ability. This practice stands in sharp contrast to the American custom of having children of several different levels of intellectual endowment follow programmes of study suitable to their abilities within a single secondary school.

People obsessed with the need for administrative order are usually much more at home with the English educational structure than with the American. Schools in the United States are largely controlled by local school boards. These boards share their power with state boards of education. The federal government, however, has almost no direct power over the schools. No single agency or ministry co-ordinates public education in the United States. In England, on the other hand, the local education authorities, while retaining considerable autonomy, serve as part

[13] *A Fact Book on Higher Education* (Washington, D.C.: published serially), p. 65.

of a well integrated system under the aegis of the Department of Education and Science. Englishmen are often dismayed to learn that the Americans lack any set of external examinations, and that an American high school diploma can represent anything from a reward for quietly vegetating within the schoolroom, instead of upon the street corner, to an indication of four years of rigorous academic preparation. Lest the American system be labelled as hopelessly chaotic, we should note that a number of extra-bureaucratic mechanisms produce a rough uniformity in most American schools. These mechanisms include regional accreditation associations, standard textbooks, nation-wide curriculum development groups (such as the Physical Science Study Committee) and teacher training institutions. What standardization there is in the American school curriculum is a product of influences originating outside the regular line of administrative authority. By contrast, uniform educational standards are defined and enforced in England by the staff and hierarchy of the educational service.

A number of differences in curriculum between the two nations should be noted, in addition to the differences in degrees of specialization mentioned earlier. First, it appears that the English state primary and secondary schools are considerably more 'academic' in their aims and methods than are schools in the United States. The English place a much higher value priority on such subjects as Latin than do their American counterparts. Whereas the daily operation of the English state schools seems to imply that their major purpose is to produce well-honed intellects, the daily curriculum of the American public schools suggests that their purpose is as much to socialize the child, to form his character, as to sharpen his wits. A great deal of the day in the American public school is taken up with 'assemblies' put on by the students or featuring guest speakers, with social studies classes in which as much time is spent in teaching social attitudes as in discussing the social sciences, and with elaborate programmes of athletics, clubs and societies. Indeed, it appears that the American public schools are much closer to the English Public

Schools in their emphasis upon character formation and social training than they are to the English state schools with their narrowly academic orientation. Second, and paradoxically, formal training in religion remains a part of the English state school curriculum, but is forbidden in American public schools. Third, on the university level America possesses a well-established curriculum on one level at which the English system is still in the formative stages, namely that of post-baccalaureate study. With the possible exception of the Universities of London and of Sussex, no English university offers a programme of graduate studies even partially comparable in structure to those available in the United States. At present, most post-graduate programmes in England consist merely of the production of a research thesis, and demand no significant amount of preparation in either content or methodology of the student's field beyond that demanded of him as an undergraduate. American doctoral programmes in the arts and sciences usually require at least two years of preparation beyond the baccalaureate, emphasizing participation in seminars with senior scholars in the student's field, before a student is certified as able to undertake research of his own.

We saw earlier that the basic similarities in the English and American plans of education were the result of parallel patterns of national history. The educational differences are the product of divergences in the countries' national histories, and of present-day variance in their social and economic patterns. For example, the refusal of Americans to distinguish clearly between children of unequal ability is the result of a Jacksonian tradition of almost a century-and-a-half's duration that views any such distinction as undemocratic. The proponents of the American comprehensive high school, like the supporters of its ancestor the Common School, have maintained that children who will eventually live in the same community as adults should be educated within the same school as children. The United States, never having possessed an hereditary aristocracy, and having developed a political tradition antithetical to its creation, could hardly support a system of schools that sharply distinguished one citizen from another.

England, in contrast, was an aristocratic nation long before it became a democratic one. In a society long used to clear social distinctions among its members, an educational system that publicly distinguished between children was a natural development.

The refusal of Americans to allow their children to specialize academically at as early an age as do the English is partially a function of the belief that the later a child is allocated to a spot in the economy and society, the more likely it is that the allocation will be a just one, reflecting his true abilities and interests. It is also a product of American wealth. America can afford to keep her children in school longer than can England, thus allowing them to specialize at a later age. England has only very recently reached the point where it can afford the luxury of keeping large numbers of its eighteen to twenty-two year-olds in school, rather than sending them to work.

One of the more puzzling differences between the two nations is the great emphasis placed by Americans upon the socialization of children, a sharp contrast to the academic orientation of most English state schools. The American position becomes understandable if one recalls that the nation was threatened with social chaos in the first three decades of this century. Besides becoming an urban society, a transformation completed in the nineteenth century in England, early twentieth century America was deluged with a flood of immigrants. Unlike the immigrants of the nineteenth century, those of the early twentieth did not come from the British Isles nor from Northern Europe. Rather, they were predominantly Southern Europeans, representatives of cultural groups which did not adapt easily to the United States' predominantly Anglo-Saxon culture. In an attempt to assimilate these peoples, and simultaneously to attack the social problems of the urban areas where they congregated, Americans turned to the schools. 'Americanization' became the mission of an entire generation of educators. They coupled their attempt at bleaching the stains of foreignness from the newcomers with naïve efforts to reform the evils of the entire urban society through classroom

techniques that emphasized the teaching of proper habits and which, perhaps unintentionally, denigrated the acquisition of academic knowledge. The cultural trauma produced in the United States by the growth of cities and by the invasion of the immigrants has no parallel in modern English history. The classical academic tradition that predominated in the English universities and Public Schools remained unscathed, and was warmly embraced by the administrators of the state system in the years of Sir Robert Morant's reign. Lacking boarding facilities, the state grammar schools and their feeder institutions never fully assumed the character building function of the Public Schools, but did slavishly copy their academic curriculum.

The contrast of the American university, with its strong emphasis upon programmes of post-graduate study, with the English university's almost sole preoccupation with undergraduates is largely attributable to the great influence the German universities had upon American practice in the late nineteenth century. Although originally modelled upon the English university, the American institutions became a hybrid when they took upon themselves the German ideal of the university as a centre for scholarly training and advanced research, with programmes leading to the doctoral degree as the symbol of a university's academic respectability.

If Americans forbid formal religious teaching in their state schools, while the English require it, this is largely because the United States has long been a religiously pluralistic society, in which the solution to church-state problems has been found in religious neutrality, rather than religious unity. England remains a Christian country and a predominantly Protestant one. Now that the nineteenth century warfare of the Established Church and the Dissenting Bodies has ceased, an Agreed Syllabus provides the basis for religious training in English schools.

When we leave consideration of the present situation, and of the historical factors which have caused it, and attempt to predict the course of future educational development in each country, one major prediction seems justified : that in the coming

decades the educational systems of England and America will more and more resemble one another. The process of convergence has been under way since the Second World War. The Butler Act established the universal right of English school children to free secondary education, a right previously secured in the United States. The school leaving age in England will be raised within the near future to approximate more closely to that of America. Comprehensive, or multilateral, secondary schools are spreading in England. The recommendation of the Robbins Report calls for an expansion of the number of students in the English universities, and for the development of a number of new types of post-secondary institutions, some of them along the lines of American precedents. At the same time as the English have been moving closer to practice in the United States, the Americans have been taking up a number of attitudes and measures adopted previously by the English. One of the most important of these is the new attitude towards academic excellence which has appeared in post-Sputnik America. Within the last decade Americans have begun to provide programmes in their elementary and high schools for gifted children, and have increasingly emphasized the intellectual function of education. Certainly an English schoolmaster would feel much more at home in a good American high school now than he would have twenty years ago. The Americans are also becoming increasingly aware of the need for the central government to participate in educational decisions, and for it to allocate money to aid education. Hence, the trickle of federal aid to education, which only began to be of any significance during the Second World War, has broadened into more than two billion dollars in grants each year. There seems to be little reason to doubt that the two systems will become increasingly alike in the coming years. Perhaps the two countries will find a common solution to their common problem: that of educating all the citizens of a democracy while maintaining an intellectual élite.

DONALD H. AKENSON

The reader will have noticed that the figures for the two nations are not strictly comparable, and hence should treat them as illustrative rather than

definitive. There are two reasons for this incomparability. First, the English figures refer to percentages of an age group spanning a single year, while the American percentages refer to a two-year age group. Second, whereas the English statistics indicate the proportion of the total population of a given age group in maintained schools, the American figures refer to the proportion of a given age group in all forms of schools. Of the English children in primary and secondary schools, more than seven million are in maintained schools, another 123,000 are in direct grant schools, and approximately 495,000 are in independent schools. (*Britain, An Official Handbook*, p. 163). Even allowing for the fact that a larger proportion of children in direct grant and independent schools are apt to stay on past the leaving age than stay on in maintained schools, the proportion of the fifteen- to eighteen-year-old age group in maintained schools cannot be much more than ten per cent smaller than the proportion of that age group in schools of all sorts. Hence, although the two sets of figures are not strictly comparable, they do serve as reliable indications of the magnitude, if not the precise degree, of difference between the two systems.

A Historical Survey of the Classics in the Schools and Universities of the United States

A century ago the Civil War had recently come to an end, and the period of rehabilitation that followed it had begun. The war was a turning point in the life and culture of the United States. In the period immediately following the war, for example, the industrial North prospered while the agrarian South was reduced to impotence; technical inventions multiplied; the moguls of industry and finance began to usurp the prestige hitherto enjoyed by the older aristocratic families. Educational developments went hand in hand with these social and economic changes.

During the war, on July 2, 1862, Congress passed the first Morrill Act, commonly referred to as the Land Grant Act, entitled 'An Act donating Public Lands to the several States and Territories which may provide Colleges for the Benefit of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts'. Its purpose was to make provision for at least one college in each state 'where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and mechanic arts . . . in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes'. For the establishment and support of the colleges the proceeds of the sale of public lands donated by the national government would be used, and each state was to decide for itself whether the new college should be an independent institution or an addition to one already existing. Pressure had been exerted on the federal government for a long time to inaugurate advanced instruction for the farmers and members of the working class, but the actual passage of this bill had a far-reaching effect on education in the United States. The newly established colleges, while not designed to exclude 'other scientific and classical studies', were frankly vocational, and their practical curriculum did in fact take

its place as an equal beside that of the liberal arts institutions. The training that these latter provided was now regarded as not fully meeting the needs of an expanding society, and the new technical instruction was received into the educational programme with no taint of inferiority attached to it.

One consequence of the establishment of the land grant colleges was that before long Latin and Greek lost their position of prominence in the scheme of American education. In the field of higher education much attention was now given to technological and other practical subjects, scientific studies assumed a much larger place than they had occupied before, and the former classical emphasis was greatly weakened. This shift at the upper levels inevitably affected studies in the secondary schools.

The classical languages played a major rôle in American education in its early days. Although an abortive attempt had been made to found a university at Henrico in the colony of Virginia even before the arrival of the first settlers in New England, it was in 1636 that a college was founded in the Massachusetts Bay Colony at Newtown, later to be called Cambridge. Two years later this college was named after the Reverend John Harvard, who had just recently died and bequeathed to it his library and half his estate. The primary purpose in establishing the college was to make provision for preparing men for the ministry. This is clearly set forth in a passage, now inscribed on a gateway at Harvard, from an early New England pamphlet entitled *New England's First Fruits* and printed in London in 1643: 'After God had carried vs safe to New England / and wee had bvilded ovr hovses / Provided necessaries for ovr liveli hood / Reard convenient places for Gods worship / And setled the civil government / One of the next things we longed for / And looked after was to advance learning / And perpetvate it to posterity / Dreading to leave an illiterate ministry / To the chvrches when ovr present ministers / Shall lie in the Dvste.' Since this was the aim and since the intellectual leaders in the colonial settlements were products of Oxford and Cambridge, it is not surprising that the course of study, not only in the college

but in the preparatory schools as well, should have been very similar to that in the universities and schools of England at the time. Latin and Greek, grammar, rhetoric, Aristotelian logic, some fairly rudimentary mathematics, a substantial amount of Hebrew and theology, and a smattering of philosophy and ancient history constituted the curriculum at Harvard in the early days. A knowledge of the classical languages was the passport for admission to college and for advancement to the bachelor's degree.

The founding of the college that was to become Harvard may be said to have marked the beginning of organized education in North America, even though there is some evidence that a school designed to prepare boys for admission to it, the Boston Latin School (still in existence), had already opened its doors before the college did. Other Latin or grammar schools were founded in New England, and it was to these that the supporting communities looked for the raising up of a new generation of leaders. The course of study, which was almost exclusively classical and religious, was designed for the training of a comparatively small number of students for high position in church and state. For those who were not in this select group, education of a more elementary character had to suffice, either in the home or at the hands of some enterprising housewife in a 'dame school'. Outside New England more of the secondary education must have been entrusted to private tutors, for there were fewer established schools, though some are known to have existed in Pennsylvania by the end of the seventeenth century and in New Jersey by the middle of the eighteenth. But the instruction, whether personal or in classes, was fairly well standardized. Even though a few extra subjects were added as time went on, making possible a limited amount of choice, the Latin and Greek languages, with a moderate seasoning of mathematics, remained the indispensable nucleus.

For over half a century Harvard was the only college in the American colonies. It was not until 1693 that the College of William and Mary was founded in Virginia, and this was soon followed, in 1701, by a college in Connecticut that nearly two

decades later took the name of a generous benefactor, Elihu Yale. The training of future clergymen, as at Harvard, was the chief function of these two colleges even though Yale's function, according to its charter, was to fit young men 'for publick employment in both Church and Civil State', and when a man took his degree therein the early days he was certified as being either *instructus ecclesiae* or *ornatus patriae*. The classical emphasis was therefore as strong at these colleges as at Harvard. By the outbreak of the Revolutionary War in 1776 there were colleges in eight of the thirteen colonies. Although most of the others were not as predominantly concerned with education for the ministry as were the three oldest, and although some of them offered a considerably wider range of subjects taught, the classical core of the curriculum was no less firmly rooted in all of them.

Throughout the colonial period the influence of British education was predominant. Of the total number of those who emigrated to North America during the seventeenth century one-third were holders of degrees from one or other of the English universities. Moreover, right up to the time of the outbreak of the Revolutionary War many youths were being sent from America to study at English schools; nearly one hundred American colonists attended Oxford or Cambridge during this period. A fair number of Anglican clergymen in Virginia studied for the ministry in England and not a few young men from the colonies went either to Edinburgh or to Leyden for medical training. That the classical emphasis was so strong and so persistent in the colonial schools and colleges is therefore not in the least surprising, any more than is the intimate acquaintance with the history and literature of classical antiquity revealed in the writings of so many leading men in the colonies.

The classical language requirements for admission to the colonial colleges were rigorous. The candidate not only had to have read extensively in both languages, but also had to be able both to write and to speak Latin with some facility. In the grammar schools it was usual to conduct many of the classes in Latin, which was also not infrequently spoken by the boys even

when they were at their games. In college they were required to deliver discourses in Latin, and sometimes in Greek, too. For graduation the prospective Bachelor of Arts was required to submit a thesis written in Latin on a topic chosen for the most part from the areas of logic, rhetoric, or science. For the degree of Master of Arts a Latin *quaestio* had to be presented. This period, too, saw the beginning of the practice of having the two ablest students in the graduating class deliver Latin orations, one the salutatory and the other the valedictory, at the commencement exercises at the end of the college year. This practice was widely followed for some considerable time, and, even after it became customary to deliver the valedictory in English, the Latin salutatory persisted in a few institutions even into the early years of the twentieth century.

In view of the great impact which classical learning had on the intellectual circles of the colonial and early republican periods, one may perhaps be tempted to exaggerate the general effectiveness of the training in ancient languages at that time. In the first place, the colleges were at times far from flourishing; Harvard, for example, in 1680, when it was still the only college in the colonies, had twenty students or less, and its library was unimpressive. A visitor from the Netherlands at this time reported that the undergraduates in residence at Harvard could hardly speak a word of Latin and that conversation with them in that tongue was impossible. About a hundred years later Latin books with English translations were being used by students. An easy command of Latin was not acquired by everyone who passed through the colonial educational process.

After the colonies had won their independence, more colleges began to spring up. Among these were some not very impressive 'state universities', in which the main emphasis, academically, was still placed on the traditional classical curriculum. Here and there, to be sure, efforts were made to move away from the dominance of Latin and Greek. Even before the Revolution, for example, a programme of subjects of greater practical utility had been worked out at the College of Philadelphia under the

influence of Benjamin Franklin for students who were not contemplating ministerial, medical, or legal careers; at Williams College in Massachusetts, founded in the 1790s, applicants for admission were permitted to substitute French for Greek, and the study of the French language and literature was introduced into the college curriculum; at the College of William and Mary the study of divinity was given up in 1779, and a little later Latin and Greek were removed from the regular programme for a while; Thomas Jefferson's illustrious University of Virginia, founded in 1825, which far outshone the few already existing state universities, provided a wide range of instruction in modern languages, sciences, and government. But the pre-eminence of the classics in the colleges was very little affected by such aberrations.

As the population grew and the frontier was pushed westward, more and more colleges came into being. In the fifty years following the Revolutionary War forty permanent colleges were established, more than a dozen of them west of the Allegheny Mountains; before the outbreak of the War between the States in 1861 there were more than five hundred institutions of higher education of which, however, only slightly more than one hundred have survived to our own time. The great majority of them were private liberal arts colleges with denominational affiliations and with teaching staff consisting largely of clergymen; their curricula as well as their entrance requirements normally included a generous proportion of classics. Meanwhile some of the older institutions extended the range of their offerings by adding professional schools. For example, a medical school had been established at the College of Philadelphia in 1765, and by the end of the century medical departments had been added at three of the other colleges; a school of law was founded at Harvard in 1817, with Yale soon following in its footsteps, and there had already been individual professorships of law at no less than four colleges by 1800. In earlier days young men entering these professions, except for the medical students who went abroad to study, had received their training by working with already established doctors and lawyers, and many continued to do so.

A theological seminary was founded at Princeton in 1812, and separate theological faculties were soon created at Harvard and Yale. It was somewhat later that scientific education started gaining momentum, for it was around the middle of the century that the Sheffield Scientific School at Yale and the Lawrence Scientific School at Harvard were established; that the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, an independent school in Troy, New York, which had been teaching civil engineering for two decades, received its present name, increased its offerings, and extended its course to four years; and that an agricultural school was started at the University of Michigan.

In the field of secondary education the grammar schools, with their predominantly classical bent, continued along the old paths. But newer types of institutions appeared on the scene. In the latter part of the 18th century 'academies' were opened in a good many cities and towns, usually under private auspices, though many received some aid from public funds. The clientèle to which they made their chief appeal consisted of merchants and farmers whose children were not expecting a college education. The subjects taught were therefore such as would meet their everyday requirements and interests. The classical languages and divinity were sometimes not included among them at all; but as the academies began to prosper and college-bound students were attracted to them, many of them began to offer the subjects traditionally required for admission to college, in addition to modern languages, history, and scientific and practical studies. Another innovation was the admission of girls to a 'female department' in some of the academies as well as the establishment of some separate 'female academies'.

Another step was taken in 1821 when the English Classical School, a name very soon changed to English High School, was started in Boston. This was the first of the free public high schools in the United States. These were designed to provide secondary education for children of the 'mercantile and mechanic classes' and were supported by some local governmental authority. In the Boston school a fairly wide range of subjects was taught –

but not, at first, any foreign language either classical or modern. Legislation was passed in Massachusetts, however, in 1827, that made mandatory, in towns having a population of four thousand or more, the teaching of a number of subjects, including Latin and Greek, that were too advanced to be taught in elementary schools. Even though the requirement was soon abrogated, it was restored thirty years later, so that in Massachusetts, at least, there were publicly supported high schools in all towns of any considerable size by the time the War between the States broke out. By then, indeed, such schools, though most numerous in New England, were in operation in many parts of the country, numbering in all about three hundred and twenty, including three in Texas and two in California. The public support of schools at this level was, however, a controversial issue and remained so until 1874, when a decision by the Supreme Court of Michigan went far toward putting an end to the controversy. A resident of Kalamazoo, Michigan, had gone to law in an effort to restrain the city from collecting additional taxes to meet the expenses of a recently created high school. Failing to win the lawsuit, he appealed to the Supreme Court of the state. The court ruled in the city's favour on the ground that the school in question had a valid claim to be treated as one of those 'free schools in which education . . . might be brought within the reach of all the children of the State' and was consequently entitled to financial support from the public treasury. This memorable verdict, which gave legal sanction for the first time to the use of taxpayers' money for the maintenance of public high schools, was influential far beyond the borders of Michigan and did much to encourage the rapid spread of such schools in the Middle West. In these schools, as in the academies with their longer tradition, although the interest of the majority of students was concentrated on more immediately practical subjects, there was often a demand for the teaching of classics, especially among those who aspired to go on to college. Most of the public high schools, therefore, taught some Latin; several taught Greek as well.

In the period of rapid change after the War between the

States education was deeply affected. The establishment of the land grant colleges meant that more attention was paid in the field of higher education to science, technology, and practical affairs in general. Secular sponsorship and control of schools and colleges became much more widespread: the range of subjects taught was greatly increased at all stages, and much more freedom of choice was granted to students, at least when they reached the college level. Institutions of higher education modelled themselves to a greater and greater extent on German rather than on English universities. Postgraduate work in purely academic fields was greatly expanded; these were the years in which the methods and the standards to be maintained in the training of students for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy were evolved. In this period, too, higher education for women developed rapidly; as early as the 1830s co-education on the college level had been introduced at Oberlin College and a number of years later at Antioch College and a couple of state universities, but it was not until the founding of the first independent colleges for women, Vassar in 1865 and Wellesley and Smith soon afterwards, and of a new co-educational university, Cornell, at about the same time, that the trend really gained momentum. Other notable developments were the enormous growth in the financial resources of many institutions resulting from munificent gifts by private individuals and the extremely rapid acceleration in the number of students attending colleges and universities.

The status of the study of Latin and Greek could not fail to be affected by some of these developments. The dominant position once held in the design of secondary and higher education by these languages was now challenged by such subjects as physics, chemistry, and biology. The proliferation of courses and the latitude of choice among them militated against ancient languages, which many students found difficult and in which they could see no practical utility. Now that institutions of higher education were becoming secularized, the typical product was no longer an earnest student with a religious background and a predisposition toward the liberal arts but a youthful modernist

who had selected his courses for the most part to suit his own inclinations. The great increase in the number of those being educated at all levels also worked in favour of those practical studies that met the immediate needs of the community and that prepared young persons for their future careers. The rapid growth in financial resources, on the other hand, was beneficial to classical studies; while a large proportion of the money was spent for the support of scientific education and of vocational training, there was a fair amount left for the liberal arts. The development of postgraduate work, too, was helpful, for classicists played a significant part in its early stages, and the teaching of Latin and Greek in this country has profited from the generous opportunities provided and the high standards usually maintained in the graduate schools. As for the higher education of women, this likewise has probably on balance contributed something to the support of the classics, for a larger proportion of women students than of men students have clung to the traditional liberal arts curriculum; moreover, for many years women have been a substantial majority of the teachers of Latin in our secondary schools.

Several prominent New Englanders studied in Germany in the years between 1815 and 1820 and brought home with them suggestions for making Harvard more like a German university, but with little or no effect. Americans continued to go to Germany to study in considerable numbers, but it was more than half a century before the German influence on our system of higher education became clearly apparent.

In 1876 the Johns Hopkins University, frankly emulating the standards and methods of universities in Germany, opened its doors in Baltimore. Its emphasis on postgraduate study and on advanced research inspired some already existing institutions to set up similar programmes. By the beginning of the present century well-established graduate schools were to be found in all sections of the country, many of whose professors had received their advanced training in Germany. It was not until about 1900 or later that our own graduate schools could meet the increasing demand for qualified scholars. It has been estimated that in the

century preceding the outbreak of World War I close to ten thousand Americans acquired the Ph.D. degree at German universities. Among these were practically all of our distinguished classicists of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

In 1882 Charles W. Eliot, President of Harvard, introduced there a thoroughgoing elective system whereby students could choose pretty much whatever they wished from a very wide variety of courses. Although there had previously been advocates of some such plan, it was not until the German principles of *Lehrfreiheit* and *Lernfreiheit* had impressed themselves on the thinking of a wider circle of Americans, that the way lay open for their adaptation to the American college curriculum. It fitted in nicely with the receptiveness toward new subjects of study that was characteristic of an expanding and fluid society and with the conviction that the educational offerings should be adapted to the student's wants rather than vice versa. Though the student was not completely free to choose every single course in accordance with his whims, the Harvard scheme aimed at giving the widest possible latitude of choice, with the result that in 1910, under Eliot's successor, there was little opposition to its being considerably modified. Meanwhile, under the influence of Harvard's example, the practice of allowing students a fair amount of choice had been widely adopted and what Dr Abraham Flexner disparagingly dubbed 'the cafeteria system' was not uncommon. But a scheme was devised and quite generally accepted that served to counteract the risk of an aimless dispersal of effort; by it a student, in order to qualify for a degree, was required to take a fixed number of courses in a 'major' field and sometimes also in a 'minor' field, thus effecting a progressive concentration in his studies as he moved forward toward the degree. Moreover, in many of the older liberal arts colleges a fairly standardized curriculum was still maintained for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. As far as the study of Latin and Greek was concerned, the elective system helped considerably to undermine their privileged position. Harvard, however, still required candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Arts to have learned some Latin in school,

and some Latin was prescribed for this degree in many institutions until after the beginning of the present century.

It is worth digressing here to outline the general requirements for a university degree in the United States. European undergraduates are expected to have completed their general education, for the most part, in the secondary schools. Here it is different; a balance between extension and concentration is required for the bachelor's degree. In Europe the undergraduate specializes in a fairly limited field, while in the United States he studies a wide variety of subjects but is usually expected by his third year, at least, to focus his interest on one or two. The number of years of study normally required in the American college for the bachelor's degree is four, during the first two of which the student must take courses in each of the three broad fields of knowledge: the humanities, the social sciences, and the natural sciences; in the last two years he goes more deeply into his major subject, and in some colleges he must have a minor subject as well. For the master's degree one or two years of postgraduate work are required, and for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy a minimum of three years, together with the completion of a dissertation that, supposedly at least, makes a substantial contribution to the store of human knowledge. But it is time to end this digression and return to the main theme of our discussion.

The latter part of the nineteenth century saw the founding of a considerable number of learned societies, and one of the older of them is the American Philological Association, which dates back to 1869. As originally planned, its interests were very wide and included 'the whole field of philological investigation and instruction'. But among those most active in getting it started were several prominent classicists, and in the early years of its existence linguistic and literary study in educational institutions was primarily focused on Latin and Greek. It is therefore not surprising that the classics bulked large both in its membership and on its programmes from the beginning, that most of those whose primary interest was in other languages and literatures soon found outlets elsewhere for their scholarly activity and

concern, and that by 1900 the Association had concentrated its attention almost entirely on the classics. The founding of the Association in 1869 was followed ten years later by that of the Archaeological Institute of America.

The *Transactions of the American Philological Association,* which has been published annually since 1870, may claim to be the oldest existing periodical publication in the field of classical philology. It was joined in 1880 by the quarterly *American Journal of Philology,* published under the sponsorship of the Johns Hopkins University. The *American Journal of Archaeology,* in which the chief emphasis has continuously been on matters pertaining to the classical world, began publication in 1895.

Another development of the latter years of the nineteenth century which promoted classical scholarship in America was the great and rapid improvement in libraries. Most academic libraries had been ill stocked with books, inadequately staffed, and poorly equipped for use. This is illustrated, for example, by the fact that in the 1870s Daniel Coit Gilman, later the first president of the Johns Hopkins University, had resigned his position as librarian at Yale because he had no assistant and could not get one, so that he had to start the fire in the library stove each morning himself. The remarkable change brought about in many libraries within a generation or two as regards both size and usefulness was amazing.

As for the position of classical study in the secondary schools before the turn of the century, it can be said that the educational assumptions underlying the elective system had not yet penetrated very deeply at this level. It is true that new subjects had been introduced into the curriculum of most schools, that there had long been some freedom of choice, and that doubt as to the value of the traditional educational requirements was widespread. But while the proportion of students taking Greek had greatly declined, Latin was still displaying a good deal of vitality. A committee of the American Philological Association that had been studying for five years the amount and the effectiveness of

the teaching of the classical languages in the schools, both public and private, presented its report in 1899. It had found that nearly 175,000 more pupils were then studying Latin than had been doing so twenty years before. The number of those studying Greek had risen from about 13,000 to nearly 25,000 in eight years, but because of rapidly increasing enrolments the percentage of Greek students had not varied significantly and was still only between four and five per cent. The proportion of Latin students in the schools, on the other hand, had risen in twenty years from about one third to almost one half of the total number; in fact, students of Latin outnumbered those of any other subject except the history of the United States, which all were usually required to take, and algebra. The committee, impressed by the lack of uniformity not only in what was taught in the Latin and Greek classes in various schools but also in the standards of achievement in these subjects required for admission to different colleges, drew up recommended courses of study designed for pupils taking four, five, or six years respectively of Latin and for those taking three years of Greek before entering college; all who were planning to take the classical course in college were urged to complete this amount of Greek in school. The texts included in the four-year Latin course were at least four books of Caesar's *Gallic War,* six or more orations of Cicero, Sallust's *Catiline,* some Ovid, and at least six books of Virgil's *Aeneid*; in the longer courses there was room for a substantial amount of additional material, such as Cicero's *De Senectute* and *De Amicitia* and the remainder of the *Aeneid*. In Greek the texts included four books of Xenophon's *Anabasis* and books 1-3 (omitting the Catalogue of Ships) and 6-8 of the *Iliad* plus twenty-five to forty pages of unspecified Attic prose.

In the first decade of the present century the number of students enrolled in the secondary schools quadrupled while the percentage of the total number studying Latin also rose. But there was a notable drop in the number of those studying Greek, from nearly 25,000 to less than 11,000. By 1915 less than one per cent of the students in the schools were in Greek classes, and the

percentage of those in Latin classes had begun to slip rather badly, too, from close to fifty per cent in 1910 to thirty-nine per cent five years later. In war time there is a tendency to stress 'practical' studies, and it is perhaps not surprising that the periods of both World Wars witnessed a serious decline in the number of students of Latin and Greek and that after each of the wars they reached a low level where they remained for some time before starting slowly upward again.

What has probably had the greatest effect on the position of the classics in American education in this century has been the fact that no one is any longer required to study them either in school or in college in order to obtain the degree of Bachelor of Arts. Until after World War I some knowledge of Latin was still required for graduation from many of the older colleges of liberal arts. Greek had been dropped as a requirement in most of them some time before this, often at first by the expedient of providing two curricula, one including Greek and leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts, the other not including it and leading to some other degree. But the historic traditions of a liberal education were deeply rooted in this country, and the supporters of compulsory Latin held out more tenaciously. The opposing forces were too strong for them, however, and the 1920s and 1930s saw the last of classical requirements practically everywhere except in some Roman Catholic institutions. The classical requirements of the older days for admission to college have lasted no longer than those at the higher level. The result has been a predictable decline in the opportunities for studying Latin and Greek provided by the secondary schools. This decline has been hastened by a variety of other circumstances, such as rapidly increasing interest in and contact with foreign nations, creating a desire to learn languages in current use abroad rather than 'dead' languages.

It should be noted that there have been trends in recent decades that have adversely affected all liberal studies, not merely the classics. Among these are the ever more intense concentration of people generally on the acquisition and enjoyment of material things; the much larger proportion of college graduates going

into business and into scientific research; the wider range of subjects taught at all levels and especially in the colleges; the general acceptance of the principle that the student should be allowed much freedom in choosing what he is to study.

The tremendous growth in attendance at schools and colleges is another fact to be taken into consideration. In the period between 1870 and 1955 the number of boys and girls attending public high schools increased twenty times as rapidly as the total population of the country. In the half century before 1920 the growth in attendance at colleges was almost twice as great as that of persons of college age; the percentage more than doubled from 1920 to 1960, and it is estimated that it will double again during the present decade; at present the undergraduate population is about four million students in slightly more than a thousand accredited colleges and universities. It is hardly surprising that with such vast numbers of students, many of them with no background of culture or interest in time-honoured tradition, crowding our institutions, the liberal arts should be comparatively neglected. It cannot fail to be a matter of concern not only to classicists but to many others as well that considerably less than one third of the students in secondary schools study any foreign language at all.

One result of all this is that Greek has largely disappeared in the public high schools and is not much better off in private secondary schools. In Pennsylvania, for example, the third most populous state in the nation and the second in the number of Latin enrolments, Greek is taught in only two of the state's public high schools; some schools that were known a generation ago for the excellence of their teaching of it have now given it up completely. A recent count indicated that in the public high schools of the United States there were less than sixty students of Greek all told; in the private secondary schools there were somewhat more and in those operated by the Roman Catholic Church several times as many, but all of them together did not much exceed one in five thousand of the well over fifteen million young persons attending secondary schools. Latin too has fallen off considerably. Although not much more than five per cent of the total

number of students in the public high schools are in Latin classes, there are still nearly 600,000 of them; this, however, is less than half the number studying Spanish and also less than half of those studying French, even if it is more than double the number of students of German, Russian, and all other foreign languages combined. One handicap under which Latin suffers in the schools is a shortage of well-qualified teachers of the subject. At the college level the widespread abolition within a short space of time of a requirement in Latin for the degree of Bachelor of Arts resulted in a rapid and very substantial reduction in the number of those studying that language.

Yet there is a brighter side to the picture. There has been an appreciable revival of interest in Greek in the colleges, stimulated by wide circulation of inexpensive but excellent translations of works of Greek literature and extensive publicity given to archaeological excavations in Greek lands. Greek is taught in fewer colleges than Latin and there are slightly less than one third as many Greek as Latin students in all colleges taken together; but in a few colleges there is actually more Greek being taught than Latin. Especially encouraging is the fact that the number of college students choosing either Latin or Greek as their major subject has been increasing during the past decade at a rate faster than that of the total number of students in the colleges. However, the fact must be faced that this is not true of the whole number of those studying classics. It should be pointed out, too, that a very large proportion of the Latin and Greek students in college have not progressed very far, being in the first or second year of their study of the language; more often than not they are merely fulfilling a foreign language requirement. Another disheartening fact is that somewhat less than half of the more than seven hundred accredited colleges of arts and sciences in the United States provide any instruction at all in either Latin or Greek.

In the schools, furthermore, the number of those studying the classical languages is decreasing, not only comparatively but even absolutely. The renewed vitality that the study of the classics began to exhibit a few years after the end of World War II is now

showing signs of slowing down, but it may well be that the substantial increases in the number of college majors and post-graduate students in this field will help to arrest any serious decline.

There are other hopeful signs as well. In many of the best private preparatory schools the study of Latin is still stressed, and in a few of them even Greek is encouraged. What is more, the quality of the teaching in these schools is excellent, as it is here and there in public high schools; young persons who have received their training in schools of this character can be counted on to distinguish themselves if they proceed further with study of the classical languages in college. Efforts, too, have been made to give greater variety and interest to the Latin readings assigned to students in the schools; they are no longer limited, as they once were for the most part, to books 1-4 of the *Gallic War,* the orations against Catiline, for Archias, and on the Manilian Law, and the first six books of the *Aeneid.* More than thirty years ago the Latin examiners of the College Entrance Examination Board, an agency that prepares and administers tests given simultaneously at many places all over the country to applicants for admission to college, ceased basing their papers on any particular group of set books or authors, a change which did much to encourage teachers to be less hidebound in their selection of texts for study.

Another cause for satisfaction is that students who go beyond the elementary stages of classical study do so ordinarily because they have enjoyed it and found it attractive; most of them are therefore reasonably competent and devoted. Moreover, advanced classes are mostly small, with intimate contact between teachers and students; in some colleges they can be conducted by the seminar method. Opportunities for able students to proceed to postgraduate work in classics are widely available; generous fellowships can be obtained, and not many graduate students are under the necessity of paying the full cost of their training. A welcome new source of financial aid, especially in large universities, has lately been opened up for classical departments under the National Defense Education Act. The purpose of the Act,

passed in 1958, was 'to insure trained manpower of sufficient quality and quantity to meet the national defense needs of the United States', and in putting this into effect lavish grants were made for a great variety of educational purposes in many academic fields. But classical languages were specifically excluded from receiving aid under the Act until it was recently amended to include them. Since then, by means of financial help obtained from this source, several classical departments have been strengthened in various ways.

Classical studies are flourishing in the postgraduate schools. Although there are more than one hundred and fifty universities in the United States, there are less than thirty-five that offer work leading to doctorates in the classical field, and two of these offer it in Latin only. The work in classics at about ten of them, however, is everywhere acknowledged to be of top quality; on the other hand, in at least five of the thirty-five, staffs and facilities for advanced postgraduate work are barely adequate. The total number of doctorates in the classical field conferred in 1964 was forty-nine, ten of the recipients being women. The total number two years before had been thirty. It is perhaps of interest to compare this number with that of all degrees of Doctor of Philosophy conferred in 1964, which was between fourteen and fifteen thousand. The number of bachelor's degrees conferred on students with a major in classics was 1,058 out of a total of nearly 618,000, and the number of master's degrees in classics was 288. Though the number of postgraduate students is small, comparatively speaking, probably not more than five hundred, it is growing at an encouraging rate, and the quality both of the students and of their training leaves little to be desired. A co-operative plan adopted a few years ago by the classical faculties of three Middle Western universities deserves mention here. In order to provide a richer postgraduate curriculum in classics than any one of them could provide by itself the Universities of Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Iowa urge their candidates for the doctorate in that field to spend successive years at the three universities in regular rotation; the university that is acting as

host for the year provides an especially varied and extensive programme, often with distinguished visiting professors participating in it; and the candidate when he comes up for his degree, though he may do so at any of the three universities, usually receives it from the one at which he has written his dissertation. It may be added that a number of opportunities are provided for postgraduate study abroad, not only at the American School of Classical Studies at Athens and the American Academy in Rome but also at foreign universities. Competitive fellowships are offered by the Schools at Athens and Rome, and a number of other fellowships, either specifically for foreign study or capable of being used for it, are awarded by colleges, postgraduate schools, and foundations or other agencies. Foreign classical scholars visit the United States in large numbers either as lecturers or on temporary appointments, and their presence as a rule is widely helpful and stimulating. Not a few classicists from abroad, moreover, have settled permanently in this country as members of the faculties of colleges and universities.

There are attractive opportunities, too, for classicists who have already earned the doctor's degree. The American Council of Learned Societies, which is a federation of national organizations concerned with the humanities and with the social sciences in their humanistic aspects, awards fellowships and grants-in-aid to enable scholars to carry on approved projects of study and research. Highly prized fellowships are awarded by the John Simon Guggenheim Memorial Foundation to promising scholars, and post-doctoral grants are made by several other educational and philanthropic organizations as well. Both mature scholars and younger students enjoy the benefits of foreign study under the plan that bears the name of Senator J. W. Fulbright of Arkansas, who in 1946 sponsored legislation authorizing the use of proceeds from the sale of war supplies abroad to finance exchanges of scholars and teachers with foreign countries, Italy and Greece among them, and to provide United States citizens with opportunities for higher education, research, and lecturing overseas; the available funds have more recently been augmented

from other sources, including direct congressional appropriations. It may be noted, too, that many colleges are more generous than they could formerly afford to be in granting frequent sabbatical leaves, even to younger members of their teaching staffs.

Of special interest and advantage to classicists is the Center of Hellenic Studies in Washington, D.C., where eight resident fellowships, assigned partly to American and partly to foreign scholars, are offered each year to younger members of the profession to work on projects of their own, dealing with some aspect of ancient Greek literature, philosophy, or history; there is a permanent director, and distinguished scholars from the United States and abroad are frequently brought to the Center for visits, lectures and discussions.

No review of the classics in American education would be complete without some reference to the major classical publications. The *Transactions of the American Philological Association,* the *American Journal of Philology* and the *American Journal of Archaeology,* all founded in the nineteenth century, have already been mentioned. *Classical Philology,* which was founded and is still published under the aegis of the University of Chicago, the *Classical Journal* and the *Classical World* go back to the early years of the present century. The *Classical Bulletin* is sponsored by St Louis University and the *Classical Outlook* by the American Classical League. *Hesperia,* a quarterly supported by the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, contains reports of the School's excavations and other articles dealing with archaeological and historical subjects, while the School of Classical Studies of the American Academy in Rome publishes both its *Memoirs,* quarto volumes usually containing several articles but sometimes only one longer study, and its *Papers and Monographs,* octavo volumes each of which is a work by a single author. The quarterly *Arion,* the newcomer among classical periodicals, is published under the sponsorship of the University of Texas. *Harvard Studies in Classical Philology* appears almost annually and *Yale Classical Studies* a little less frequently. The Sather Classical Lectures, delivered by a visiting American or foreign scholar of renown

who spends a semester at the University of California as Sather Professor of Classical Literature, are afterwards published in book form; these series of lectures are given annually and have been responsible for bringing many eminent classicists from abroad to this country. The Martin Classical Lectures at Oberlin College and the Jerome Lectures at the American Academy in Rome, repeated at the University of Michigan, are given and published with somewhat less regularity. The Charles Eliot Norton Lectureship of the Archaeological Institute of America has brought a number of classical archaeologists of note to these shores; a lecturer is appointed annually and delivers the same lecture to each of several of the more than sixty local societies of the Institute. A major rôle in bringing foreign scholars to this country has been played by the Institute for Advanced Study, at Princeton, New Jersey, where eminent scholars work in their own fields of specialization; there is a permanent nucleus of long-term members, of whom at present three are classicists, and temporary members are invited to join them for varying periods of time.

The generally flourishing state of classical scholarship is reflected in the robust health of the American Philological Association; the number of its members is increasing, and the meeting in 1965 was the largest in its history. The regional and state associations, too, are in a healthy condition, and there are vigorous local classical clubs in some of the cities. The American Classical League, which is primarily concerned with the needs and interests of teachers and pupils in secondary schools, is going forward with renewed vitality. Summer institutes where Latin teachers can take courses that will enrich their teaching are held at several colleges, and there are summer schools conducted primarily for teachers both in Italy, at Cumae, and in Greece, at Athens. Especially to be welcomed by secondary school teachers, even though it bids fair to accomplish much that will benefit all classicists, is the recently launched movement called Classical Action USA (CAUSA); this is working vigorously in a variety of ways to promote the interests of the classics, and for it a national office which is to serve as a focus for its manifold activities has been

established in Washington. In April 1965 a well-organized and authoritative conference was held, with the co-operation and support of the United States Office of Education, at which a carefully selected group of classicists from both colleges and secondary schools made a serious and detailed study of four topics: the rôle and relevance of classical education, classical curricula, instructional methods and media, and teacher education. Often in the past there have been committees and conferences entrusted with the task of studying and doing something about the state of the classics. There would appear to be some justification for hoping that more will be accomplished by the present well-planned and well-coordinated endeavours.

To supplement the efforts that are being put forth by our own profession to safeguard and to further our interests, we can now expect help in larger measure from official sources. In 1965 a National Foundation on Arts and Humanities was set up by an Act of Congress. This is designed to give the same sort of governmental support to the fine arts and the humanistic disciplines that has been given to the sciences through the National Science Foundation. Generous sums of money have been appropriated for the training of teachers, for fellowships, for the publication of scholarly works, for loans to private schools and the support of public educational agencies, and for fostering wider understanding of the humanities. Many problems of administration are still to be solved. But classical studies can look ahead with confidence to sharing with their sister disciplines in the benefits of this splendid public enterprise.

In summary, then, it may be said that in sharp contrast to early colonial days, when every educated person had been trained in the classics, only a very small minority of those who receive their education in the United States of America today have learned any Latin and only the tiniest fraction have learned any Greek, but that, in spite of some discouraging trends, the classics are still firmly rooted in our educational system and can look forward with assurance to a bright future.

L. R. SHERO

Classical Associations in the United States

The American Philological Association (A P A) is the most prestigious classical association in the Western hemisphere. At its annual meetings, held regularly December 28-30, the principal purpose, in addition to the transaction of the business of the association, is nominally the dissemination of philological information, accomplished chiefly through the presentation, in six or more sessions, of forty or more papers by members or invited guests. By regulation, no oral presentation may exceed twenty minutes, after which ten minutes' discussion by those present is permitted. In practice the limitation is often exceeded by the author and discussion is rare even when encouraged by the presiding officer. Attendance at sessions for the reading of papers is usually small: those attending the meeting are distracted by matters which seem more urgent, and worthwhile papers will be published later, in final form and properly documented. At a special session the president, in addition to delivering the presidential address, confers upon a member the annual Award of Merit for a book, monograph, or article published within the past three years.

Since academic openings are rarely announced publicly in the United States and Canada, interviews for positions, especially in higher education, have become more and more an important feature of the meetings. The Association, with a semipublic list of those seeking positions, acts as discreet intermediary between prospective employer and employee.

The Association is a member of the Fédération Internationale des Associations d'Etudes Classiques (F I E C) and of the American Council of Learned Societies (A C L S), and contributes financially to the *Thesaurus Linguae Latinae;* with the Modern Language Association it maintains joint committees on Co-operation with Emerging Nations and on International Scholarly Co-operation. Although not primarily concerned with the academic status of

classical studies, the Association maintains a Committee on Educational Training and Trends. Its Committee on Greek and Latin College Textbooks is charged with investigating what existing textbooks need to be reprinted and what new ones written. The reprinting of texts most asked for by members of the Association is undertaken by the University of Oklahoma Press.

The Association publishes an annual volume of *Transactions and Proceedings*. *Transactions* include scholarly papers, most of which have been presented at recent meetings of the Association. *Proceedings* include minutes of meetings and a list of members: Vol. 94 (for 1963) includes also an admirable historical sketch of the Association by L. R. Shero. Occasional publications of the Association are *Philological Monographs* and *Special Publications,* the latter exemplified by the edition of Servius in progress.

The Society for Ancient Philosophy usually schedules a session for the reading of papers during the same three-day period. Similarly a session devoted to papyrology is sometimes planned, in co-operation with the American Society of Papyrologists. This Society furthermore publishes a *Bulletin* and plans to publish monographs; it undertakes a six-week Summer Training Program, granting fellowships to young scholars for training in papyrology.

The Archaeological Institute of America (A I A) meets regularly every year at the same time and place as the A P A. In five or more sessions, members or invited guests present reports upon excavations or scholarly studies in areas related to art or architecture. There is a heavy emphasis upon the Mediterranean world, though other areas are not excluded. The opportunity to learn something about archaeological discoveries which may not be published in detail for many years guarantees a good attendance at the sessions. At the meeting the president also makes the annual award for achievement in archaeology.

Most members of the Institute are affiliated with one of its more than sixty Societies. A geographically centred Society may number from twenty to several hundred members. Each year three Institute Lecturers, drawn from a national roster, visit each

Society; many Societies schedule their own Society lectures in addition. In many communities a Society lecture is a significant event, and many Societies gain from the interest and support of numerous non-professionals who contribute eagerly to the diffusion of archaeological information and news.

The Institute publishes two quarterly journals, *The American Journal of Archaeology* and the excellent but more popular *Archaeology*. Its *Monographs* appear occasionally, and it assumes responsibility for the American fascicles of the *Corpus Vasorum Antiquorum*. The Institute is a constituent member of FIEC and ACLS. Allied institutions following academic and research pursuits are the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, the School of Classical Studies of the American Academy in Rome, the American Schools of Oriental Research, the School of American Research (for American archaeology), the American Research Center in Egypt, the American Research Institute in Turkey, and the Council of Underwater Archaeology; most of these essentially independent academic institutions, with their own governing bodies, maintain their own curricula, fellowships, professorships and publications as well as supervising excavations.

The Institute awards a travelling fellowship for study in Mediterranean areas; it sponsors films, for sale or rental, on archaeological subjects.

Several other national learned societies attract classical scholars with special interests. Classicists and ancient historians are represented on the Committee on Ancient History of the American Historical Association. The Mediaeval Academy of America meets annually, with occasional papers on mediaeval Latin; *Speculum* is its quarterly journal. On rare occasions the annual meeting of the Linguistic Society of America is held in the same city as the meetings of APA and AIA. Its quarterly journal, *Language,* and its *Language Monographs* are concerned primarily with the new linguistics and non-classical languages, but contributions from classicists are by no means disqualified. The American Numismatic Society takes justifiable pride in its *Numismatic Notes and Monographs* and other publications as well as

in its special Summer Seminar in numismatics, with grants-in-aid for qualified students.

The American Classical League (A C L) concerns itself primarily with pedagogical matters and the defence of the classics. At its three-day Institute, held each summer, papers and discussions, formal and informal, are devoted to the theory and the practice of the teaching of the classics. The invaluable Service Bureau of the League maintains an inexpensive placement service; it distributes, at extremely low prices, a great variety of aids for teachers: bibliographies, playlets, pageants, seasonal programmes, cards, posters, calendars, music, books, reprints of articles from periodicals, and other items. Its official organ, *The Classical Outlook,* published monthly from September through May, includes articles and news of interest to teachers (including an annual listing of available summer courses at institutions of higher learning), original poems in Latin and English, translations to and from Latin, and notices of new books. The Executive Secretary of the League, with an office in Washington, acts as chief spokesman for the classics before government and other public offices, especially the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the National Foundation on the Arts and the Humanities. Each year the League awards three scholarships to secondary school teachers for study in the summer schools in Rome or Athens.

The Junior Classical League (J C L), under the auspices of A C L, offers membership, with no further scholastic requirement, to pupils in the classics in secondary schools. The activities of chapters in individual schools vary considerably; some meetings are devoted to strictly classical matters, but the principal events are peripheral, such as banquets in Roman style and dress, Roman fashion shows, playlets and pageants at school assemblies. Often the popularity of a League chapter helps to bolster enrolment in Latin classes. Chapter delegates attend annual meetings of the state organizations, the memorable features of which are exhibits and playlets and the election of student officers of the state organizations. Two or three popular lectures on classical subjects

may be added; there are no scholastic competitions. The annual national meeting follows, on a larger scale, much the same pattern.

The Vergilian Society of America, the majority of whose members are secondary school teachers, operates several two-week summer sessions and an extended classical tour of Italy and Sicily, based on its Villa Vergiliana at Cumae. Scholarships are available. *Vergilius* is the annual publication of the Society.

Eta Sigma Phi is the national fraternal society of undergraduate classicists, with chapters at many colleges and universities. Each year the fraternity awards two scholarships to university students for summer study at Athens or Rome. In some chapters election to membership is a reward for considerable scholarly achievement, in others students with only average marks in elementary courses are invited to membership; some chapters confine activity to the initiation of new members. *Nuntius,* published four times during the academic year, contains chapter news. In many colleges and universities, classics departments sponsor independent clubs for students interested in classical studies.

Regional associations of classicists encompass all fifty states and some of the Canadian provinces. Papers presented at regional meetings range from disquisitions as learned as those at meetings of APA and AIA to practical hints for teachers. These meetings represent in general the happiest compromise between scholarly and pedagogical interests.

The Classical Association of New England (CANE), covering six states, meets for two days each spring. It awards an annual scholarship to a secondary school teacher for summer study in Rome.

The Classical Association of the Atlantic States (CAAS), covering five states and the District of Columbia, meets for two days twice each year. To a secondary school teacher it awards an annual scholarship for summer study in Rome or Athens; there are also three scholarships for a summer workshop under its joint sponsorship. Its house organ, *The Classical World,* pub-

lished monthly September through May, is a useful journal which acts as custodian of the general progress of classical studies, with professional news, bibliographies, reviews of recent scholarship, large numbers of brief reviews or notices of books, and occasional brief notes.

The Classical Association of the Middle West and South (C A M W S), covering thirty states and Ontario, meets for three days each spring. In addition, the Southern Section, with its own organization and affiliation with the Southern Humanities Conference, meets biennially. C A M W S awards two, sometimes three, annual scholarships to secondary school teachers for summer study at Athens, Rome or Cumae; it also awards nine scholarships each year to prospective university students of the classics, on the basis of a competitive examination in sight translation of Latin. The Association's house organ, *The Classical Journal,* published monthly October through May, contains items of interest or assistance to teachers, and book reviews, as well as notes and articles.

The Classical Association of the Pacific States (C A P S), covering nine states and British Columbia, functions, for practical purposes, through its three sections, Northern, Central, and Southern, each with officers and separate meetings.

In most of the fifty states some kind of annual meeting attracts classicists within the area, offering a forum to teachers at various levels. In some states, with little or no formal organization of teachers of the classics, the state Education Association sponsors at state meetings, or regional meetings within the state, a session intended to benefit teachers of Latin or of foreign languages in general. In other states, the Classical Conference (as it is often called) or Association is independent and influential, sometimes quite affluent. Meetings are held at varying times during the academic year, annually or biennially for one or two days, with occasional papers of solid scholarly value or lectures by distinguished visitors; but the principal purpose is to help teachers at all levels, both by practical suggestions and by discussions and the exchange of ideas. The state associations of New Jersey,

Ohio, and Pennsylvania each award an annual scholarship to a secondary school teacher for summer study in Greece or Italy. Several states, e.g. Michigan, Minnesota and Georgia, publish useful newsletters.

Many cities or metropolitan areas support classical clubs where much is often accomplished to foster mutual understanding and encouragement among professional classicists and others interested in classical studies. The city clubs' activities frequently include not only colloquia and lectures, but also sponsorship of contests or scholarly competitions for Latin pupils of the area, celebration of Latin Week in the schools, and similar encouragements to teachers and pupils. Some clubs work admirably to publicize the value and the cause of the classics. Many groups, such as the Chicago Classical Club, enjoy great local prestige; the New York Classical Club awards an annual scholarship for summer study abroad.

W. R. JONES

The Classics in the Secondary Schools of the United States

The three major types of secondary school in the United States are the free public high schools, the parochial schools (Roman Catholic predominating), usually charging nominal tuition fees, and the private preparatory schools, some of which, especially in the East, are modelled after the English Public Schools. Of the total enrolment (for 1965) of 15,321,000, approximately 10% was in the private schools.[1] Pupils attend from age 14 to 18, and those four years are designated ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades, or I, II, III, and IV. Junior high schools for ages 12 and 13 are the seventh and eighth grades, sometimes lodged in their own buildings, although they are classed as part of the elementary system.

In 1959 enrolment in Latin (Greek is very rarely taught) in public high schools was 618,000; in French, 480,000; in Spanish, 691,000. By 1964, Latin had increased to 680,000; French to 1,131,000; Spanish, to 1,336,000.[2] The reason for the phenomenal growth of enrolment in modern foreign languages (M F L) was a federal law, the National Defense Education Act, passed in 1958, which allocated funds to encourage the study of M F L in the schools, particularly in the elementary grades. Whereas previously few junior high schools had offered any foreign language, many pupils at age 12 now begin to study French, Spanish, German, or, less frequently, Russian or Latin. The language begun in the junior high school is continued in high school. The decline in the strength of Latin enrolments relative to other languages is dramatically shown by the figures for the academic

[1] *Digest of Educational Statistics*, 1965, pp. 4, 5. U S Office of Education, Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D C.

[2] Adapted from 'Public High School Enrollments in Latin in 1963-1964' *Classical World* 58 (May, 1965), 270.

year of 1965-1966;[3] 590,000 pupils were enrolled in public high school Latin classes – a drop of 90,000 in actual numbers from the previous year and of 5½% (from 19½ to 14) in the proportion of all students enrolled in foreign language classes.

Title III of the National Defense Education Act, amended last year, does authorize assistance for the purchase of supplementary material for the teaching of Latin. However, eight years after the passage of the law, the Classics have not yet been specifically named in it. To understand this short-sighted policy, one must understand the whole complex of problems which have beset the study of Latin since the 1920s.

In 1916 John Dewey wrote *Democracy and Education*. Distrusting traditional curricula in the schools as exclusive and inappropriate for our ethnic 'melting pot', he recommended pragmatic goals and experimental reform. His high priests in the colleges of Education, William Kilpatrick in particular, translated this philosophy of instrumentalism, as it was called, into resounding sophisms, such as *real needs, education for democracy, learn by doing, the child-centered school, dynamic education, growth potential*. Traditional subjects were *dead, subject-centered, backward-looking*. All foreign languages were suspect, but especially Latin. The Pontifex Maximus in a mantic mood sang that, 'in terms of rich, vital interests that might lead to individual growth, languages offer meager possibilities'.[4] Thus the giants of Education took over Olympus, unopposed by the professors of the Classics in the universities.

Each of the 50 states has a superintendent of public instruction who is likely to be an Educationist, perhaps even a Doctor of Education. Since he certifies all teachers in his state, a teacher may have to have as many college credits in Education as he has in his major subject. In some states it is actually possible for an undergraduate to start Latin as a first-year course in college, and, with

[3]Figures furnished by the Modern Language Association and tabulated in *Classical World* 59 (May 1966), 299.

[4]Quoted by Albert Lynd, *Quackery in the Public Schools*, N Y 1953, 52, from Samuel Tenenbaum's *William Heard Kilpatrick: Trail Blazer in Education*, 105-6.

two more courses, be qualified to teach Latin in a secondary school. Such a person may be graduated, for example, as a B.A. with English as his major subject, and teach four classes of English and one or two of Latin. Thus a state's requirements for specialization are not the same as those of a department of Classics in a college. Fortunately, in practice most teachers of Latin are much better trained. But it is too often true that our secondary teachers are not Classicists – many even of the better ones have had no Greek – and that Latin has often died because of incompetent, unenthusiastic teaching on a part-time basis, especially where the principal wished to kill the subject off.

Another problem has been the 'Elective System'. How better to apply Democracy in Action than to let the student choose his courses in secondary school or in college? The result often is that a graduate has no deep knowledge of any one discipline, but a smattering of many. Universities frequently demand basic survey courses in the humanities and other subjects, but some believe that these 'general studies' should be taken care of in the high schools. Then, because of the elective system, it is possible for the departments of humanities to allow teachers of English to be graduated with no exposure to the Classics, even in translation. This principle of free choice can also adversely affect the preparation of the future Latin teacher. He may, for example, be certified as a Classics specialist without having had any training in prose composition; he may have had no Greek; he may never have read some of the major Latin authors; he may not have had a course in ancient history or philosophy. In high school the effects of the elective system are even more crippling. For example, while American history is almost universally required, the student going on to college may not have had any other course in history.

Another result of the Educationist theory of the 'well-adjusted' and 'well-rounded' child is an inordinate emphasis on extra-curricular activities. None of these is bad in itself, but too frequently the pupil, abetted by a harried sponsoring teacher and an enthusiastic administration, puts them before his studies and his health. It is no wonder, then, that candidates for advanced

degrees, who would make very good secondary teachers, refuse to consider teaching in high schools. With all the money now available for grants, a graduate student settles in to obtain in three or more years the degree of Ph.D. so that he can teach in a college. Many are never going to be even second-rate scholars, and often do not possess the magnanimous humanism that will transform Alexandrine scholarship into Athenian university teaching. Yet it is they who will train future secondary teachers.

Another problem is the inevitable clashes of the teacher with counsellors who have specialized, in the colleges of Education, in Guidance. They handle psychological problems; the testing of aptitude, intelligence, achievement, stability, creativity; supervision of such examinations as College Entrance Board (C E B), Advanced Placement (A P), or National Merit Awards. Counsellors also schedule the courses the child will take. If the counsellor is hostile to Latin he will point out to the pupil that Latin is for snobs, that it is dead, that it is not useful. If he himself had an unhappy two years of the subject, he may even be more virulent, especially about Caesar. It is difficult in some systems for the teacher of Latin to get past the counsellors into the elementary schools to explain the merits of the subject to parents and students. Even if the counsellor is amenable to a pupil's studying Latin, he may find it too difficult to fit into an average student's schedule as a second language. Four major subjects, including English, are the normal programme. With leading universities expecting more mathematics and science for matriculation than prior to World War II, not much room is left for a second language. As for the best students, who carry five major subjects a day, they may be advised by the counsellor to elect a second modern language. Further, sometimes we Classicists tend to survey the rolling sea of our educational system with Neptunian superiority and a *Quos ego*—! This does not endear us to our harried colleagues, especially the teachers of English and modern foreign languages, any more than to counsellors and administrators.

Another development – arising from either our *hubris* or our not squarely facing educational trends, or too great emphasis on

turning out future Classicists – has been our inability to hold many students for more than a two-year sequence, the minimum required if a student elects a foreign language. We cannot in all honesty blame educationists, administrators, counsellors, or even the growing competition with MFL, science or mathematics for our drastic losses after second-year Latin. In other words, we ourselves did not examine our courses or our methods soon enough to see whether they were sufficiently realistic to maintain an average adolescent's enthusiasm for Latin by providing a more general humanistic base.

Most secondary schools use well-known traditional series as textbooks, especially for Latin I and II.[5] These books, each including all a teacher needs for one year, aim to finish the fundamentals by the first half of Latin II. Latin I books are generally good, recounting stories from mythology and anecdotes from Livy. Latin II books, after reviews of first-year, often based on accounts of Roman daily life, and after a story such as 'The Argonauts' from *Fabulae Faciles,* or an adaptation of a comedy or of *Cupid and Psyche,* devote the rest of the year to Caesar's *Gallic Wars.* The third year, consisting largely of Cicero, starts with the *Catilinarians,* and, after decoding them, the student 'reads' *Pro Lege Manilia, Pro Archia* and selections from the letters; perhaps also a bit of Ovid. The fourth year consists primarily of Vergil's *Aeneid,* 1, 2, 4 and 6.

The use of one inclusive book a year is the result of the eagerness of administrators to keep costs down. Many states, since schools often rent books to pupils or allow their use *gratis,* require that an adopted book be kept for five years. Hence, the small, inexpensive reader such as is common in British schools is not widely used to supplement the standard texts in smaller schools or in large city systems where change involves red tape, although now, with government funds available, this situation will be improved.

Our methods, too, had become static. MFL, being spoken, included earlier in courses every useful device to prevent the

[5]See appendix, no. 4.

student's using only grammatical analysis to comprehend what he was reading. 'Find the main verb' was too often our injunction to students – as if the sentence were a jig-saw puzzle. In the last fifteen years, however, with the spread of the theory of structural linguistics, there has been questioning of our traditional approach. Unfortunately, the experimentalists seemed to attack with righteous indignation, and the traditionalists self-righteously dug in for a siege. This split divided the profession at the very time that we needed concerted effort to revise the content of Latin II and III.

Here are some of the methods that have been of late promulgated:

Waldo Sweet and his disciples have pushed for reading Latin 'as Latin' with 'structural drill' – the sort of question and answer in Latin found in *Pseudolus*. He has recently developed a series based on the theory of 'programmed learning', where a linguistic point is learned with the help of an illustration, and the students teach themselves by checking at once the correctness of their response. Henry Gardocki also has a series using 'programmed learning', specially designed for fourth, fifth, and sixth graders. He calls his series the 'generative' approach. There is the 'natural' method of William Most, a semi-linguistic system. There is the 'sense-line' method of Gilbert C. Peterson. There are 'semi-programmed' readers available with some interlinear vocabulary covered by a movable, plastic 'grid'. Overhead projectors, language laboratories and tape recorders are widely used.

The pot's aboil. It is a good thing to put heat under the routine approach, but some fear that there is a risk that teachers and pupils may suffer from too-quick acceptance of anything new just because it is new.

Another development that may need careful watching, if it is not to develop into a problem child, is the Advanced Placement Examination (A P) in Latin IV and V. In 1965 there were 549 papers written for A P IV, 330 for A P V. The tests are to sift out the very best students in the country who have had presumably four or five years of Latin. One small cloud is that it is possible

for some third-year students to take A P IV. If they pass with a 5 (A), 4(B), or sometimes a 3 (C), a few colleges will grant them three to six hours' undergraduate credit towards the 120 they must have to earn their degree[7]. They then may drop Latin and never be seen again. A P V students have presumably had five years of Latin, and their examination gives some choice among Livy, Tacitus, Cicero, Plautus and Terence, Catullus, and Horace.

To some of the graders, the tests seem to yield poor absolute results, but, because they are scaled, the grades do not truly reflect how far the tests are realistic. One solution suggested is to give only one comprehensive A P IV examination, limited to those who have had at least four years of Latin, on Caesar, Cicero and Livy, as well as on Vergil, Ovid and Catullus. The fifth year could then be cleared for a course of reading of the eclectic sort more familiar to British teachers, or for beginning Greek.

The two greatest problems connected with A P are that the universities do not uniformly recognize the tests, and that often students who do pass and receive college credit and/or advanced standing are not under obligation to continue Latin or begin Greek in college. These problems will no doubt be solved, for teachers are enthusiastic about A P as a practical means of emphasizing excellence.

So much for the problems. However, great as they are, we know that they are not insoluble. And there are some very heartening trends.

I IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The private schools continue to insist that college-bound students study Latin. The better public schools therefore will have to shore up their departments of Latin and see to it that Latin is allowed as an option in the junior high schools. Some are already concerned. Teachers of Latin are strengthening their courses. The controversy over method, which tended at first to create division,

[7] *Grade Interpretation Manual,* May, 1965, p. 8. College Entrance Examination Board, Box 977, Princeton, New Jersey.

has at least had the happy effect of forcing us to re-examine all our premises. New elementary texts provide more than a war-vocabulary for Latin II. Supplementary readers are being much more widely used in Latin II and III. Teachers have had to be more concerned about the pupils' psychic health. It is the anxious pupils, pushed too far too fast on material not suited to average students' immaturity, who drop Latin in droves at the end of Latin II. Hence, besides searching for material that an average adolescent finds engaging, teachers are learning to trim their sails of expectation by grading less rigorously. To their surprise, this not only does not lower the quality of their best students' performance, but also makes it possible for the less able to enjoy the subject.

Teachers are becoming more competent Latinists. There has been an unprecedented demand for summer courses, sometimes known here as 'workshops'. In 1965 there were 54 such courses offered in institutions of higher learning.[8] A few teachers are also asking for courses in conversational Latin so that they can teach early by the direct method idioms difficult for a student to analyse later grammatically. Secondary teachers have quit trying to ingratiate themselves with the public by emphasizing the 'practical' values of Latin. Granting these in passing, teachers are educating the public to want what Latin offers – humanistic values. Admitting that most pupils in Latin courses need a humanistic base for ultimate specialization in other disciplines, teachers have suggested that several curricula for each year be worked out for varying levels of interest and achievement; also that texts be set up in such a way that pupils of different abilities can in the same class go at different paces, as is possible with programmed texts and readers.

II IN THE UNIVERSITIES

The departments of Classics are re-examining the pattern of their courses for undergraduates. Instead of blaming high-school teachers for the poor preparation of the undergraduates, they are

[8] 'Summer Study', *Classical Outlook* 42 (April, 1965), 89 ff.

beginning to ask themselves whether they are actually turning out competent classicists for either undergraduate or high-school teaching, and whether they are attracting a sufficient number of undergraduates who simply want to be well educated. A corollary of this is that many departments of Classics are now putting their best men – recognized scholars who are also great-hearted teachers – into the earlier undergraduate courses, which often had been left to less experienced instructors.

The most gratifying development is the increased awareness by professors of the stupendous problems of the high-school teachers of Latin, who no longer feel that they are struggling with administrative indifference or hostility in bitter isolation. Besides expressing their concern in print, eminent scholars are also taking an active part in defining and solving problems. They are now aware that, without compromising their scholarly productivity, they must also write articles for the general public. They are seeing to it that the departments of Classics are allocating more funds for producing materials for secondary schools. There are signs, too, that attempts are being made to achieve closer rapprochement with the colleges of Education so as to end the separatism between them and the departments of Classics.[9]

III CO-OPERATIVE ACTION

The April 1965 conference on the classics, held with the support of the U S Office of Education, has been mentioned in Professor Shero's article. At this conference four committees were appointed to continue the work begun, one committee for each of the four topics studied at the conference. Further, the President of the American Classical League obtained funds to open a national office in Washington, D C, which will co-ordinate the efforts of all classical organizations for more effective action. This office is also being financially supported by the American Philological Association through its President and executive council. It is also worth mentioning that of 26 members on the council of the

[9] *E.g.*, Mark P. O. Morford, 'The Classics and the Clinical Professor: A Transatlantic View', *Classical Journal* 61 (Oct. 1965), 13-15.

National Foundation on the Arts and Humanities, appointed by President Johnson, two are outstanding classicists, Dr Robert Goheen, President of Princeton University, and Professor Gerald Else[10]. As a result of their efforts an Institute for six weeks for 40 teachers was held in 1966 at the University of Minnesota, with the main emphasis on teaching Latin in the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades as an initial step towards establishing a six-year curriculum in Latin.

IV OTHER SOURCES OF GOOD WILL FOR THE CLASSICS

Recently American popular magazines have blossomed with essays on Greece and Rome, illustrated with beautiful coloured reproductions. The glamour of classical archaeology, in particular, has helped to renew interest in Latin and Greek. Great Books Clubs, programmes of instruction on educational television, even the spate of penny-dreadful movies, complete with orgies and Poppaeas bathing in asses' milk, ridiculous as they are to the classicist, are helping to demummify our image across the land.

An unexpected result of the increased enrolment in M F L is that there is a measure of disillusionment. Pupils have found that, in spite of language laboratories, tape recorders, overhead projectors, there is no easy way to learn any language. We are geting many bright students on the rebound who find that Latin is not so dull and difficult as they had supposed.

V AMERICAN ETHOS AS A FOUNDATION OF HUMANISTIC ENLARGEMENT

What is very difficult for the casual visitor to our shores to realize is that, in spite of our seemingly confused educational goals, our hodgepodge of élite and illiterates in the same schools, our apparent jabbing experimentally at achievement, there is a deep,

[10] Professor Else was also chairman of the Committee on The Rôle and Relevance of Classical Education Today at the April 1965 Conference. For his paper see *Planning Conference to Examine the Rôle of Classical Studies in American Education and to Make Recommendations for Needed Research and Development*, Co-operative Research Project No. V-005, The George Washington University, Washington, D C, and the U S Office of Education.

strong undercurrent of drive for excellence. It is almost impossible for the outsider to know that our system does produce a remarkable élite and it is categorically impossible for him to understand fully that many students who might have spent their lives looking at the shadows on the wall are in fact making their way up from the cave. It will be the work of a century to teach the average man – a very remarkable person, by the way – some of the delights of mind and soul that heretofore were a gift of society to the few. If our system seems to be backing and filling it is because we have only begun to rebuild it.

For all our pragmatism in the United States, we are also idealistic and believe that in the long run the ideal is the practical. We are trying to get our massive educational system on the move to correct stupidities, injustices, illiteracy. There is a large number of teachers who are insisting on the best of our heritage, including the Classics, for as many as can profit by it, for future housewives and mechanics may be more in need of enlargement culturally than even the college-bound. Our larger schools, which can section classes by levels of ability, have proved how rewarding the Classics can be for the less able. The pace is slower, there is more material on history and literature in translation, more time spent on comparisons with modern civilization. But in four years the pupils may achieve deep respect for language and for their heritage, even though their Latin may be shaky. If democracy in education means anything at all, these students should not be deprived. Already many of them are not.

GERTRUDE DRAKE

Appendix

1 The 1966 list of books for schools by categories (texts, beginners' books, grammar and metric, readers and anthologies, dictionaries, New Testament Greek and Later Latin) can be found in *Classical World* 59.7 (March, 1966), 221 ff.

2 The addresses of three periodicals used by secondary teachers are:

Classical Outlook, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. $1.00 a year.

Classical Journal, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio. $4.50 a year.

Classical World, Rutgers University, 12 James St., Newark, New Jersey. $4.75 a year.

3 The American Classical League maintains a Service Bureau at Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, which puts out dozens of inexpensive, useful items, mimeographed or printed, for secondary teachers. Prices range from 5c. up. Complete list available on request.

4 The five most widely used traditional Latin I and II texts are put out by:

Scott-Foresman, 433 E. Erie St., Chicago, Illinois. I and II (Horn, Gummere, Forbes), $4.64 and $4.92.

Macmillan, 60 Fifth Avenue, New York City, New York. I and II (Ullman, Henderson, Henry), $4.80 and $5.20.

Allyn and Bacon, Rockleigh, New Jersey. I (Jenney, Smith, Thompson), $5.44; II (Jenney and Scudder), $5.64.

Lyons and Carnahan, 407 E. 25 St., Chicago, Illinois. I (Crabb), $4.60; II (Crabb and Small), $4.60.

D. C. Heath, 285 Columbus Ave., Boston, Mass. I (Carr and Hadzits), $4.20; II (Carr, Hadzits, Wedeck), $5.60.

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